



Insights into photocatalytic inactivation mechanism of the hypertoxic site in aflatoxin B₁ over clew-like WO₃ decorated with CdS nanoparticles

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ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Photocatalytic inactivation
Mechanism
Aflatoxin B₁
Hypertoxic site
Hydroxyl radical

ABSTRACT

Aflatoxin B₁ (AFB₁) is regarded as a main biological pollutant with high toxicity, carcinogenicity and teratogenicity, and the double bond (C8=C9) of its terminal furan ring is the key hypertoxic site. Although semiconductor photocatalysis has been proposed to be a potential way of reducing or inactivating the toxicity of AFB₁, the reaction mechanism of reactive oxygen species with the hypertoxic site has not been defined so far. Herein, a kind of all-solid-state Z-schematic composite was fabricated by depositing CdS on the surface of clew-like WO₃, which can sharply reduce the toxicity of aflatoxin B₁ in aqueous solution under visible light irradiation according to the cytotoxicity test result. On the bases of high resolution mass spectrum (HRMS), radical trapping test and ¹⁸O isotope-labeling studies, it can be concluded that the preferentially inactivating the C8=C9 site by the addition reaction of hydroxyl radical was the main pathway for the detoxification of aflatoxin B₁. Furthermore, density functional theory (DFT) calculations were applied to reveal the reaction mechanism and verify that the hydroxyl radicals were most likely to react with the C9 site, and then form AFB₁-9-hydroxy. This work provides in-depth insights into the inactivation mechanism of hypertoxic site in AFB₁, and the design of efficient photocatalysts for alleviating the risk of toxic pollutants.

1. Introduction

Environmental pollutants with high toxicity and stability from chemical, physical and biological source have become a worldwide concern. Aflatoxin B₁ (AFB₁), as one of most important biological pollution, is a highly toxic, mutagenic, and carcinogenic secondary metabolite produced by fungus from the soil and agricultural products [1]. It can contaminate the soil and water source through raining and wet processing, and then directly influence health of ecosystems and bring serious threats to human [2,3]. The highly toxic activity of AFB₁ is ascribed to its extremely stable chemical structure, which is composed of the double furan rings and coumarin [1,4]. And the double bond of terminal furan ring in AFB₁ (C8=C9 site in the Scheme 1) is the key toxic and carcinogenic site, which can be transformed to AFB₁-8,9-epoxide in the body, and then combine with DNA, glutathione S-transferase or N7 guanine to form adducts [4–6]. These adducts such as

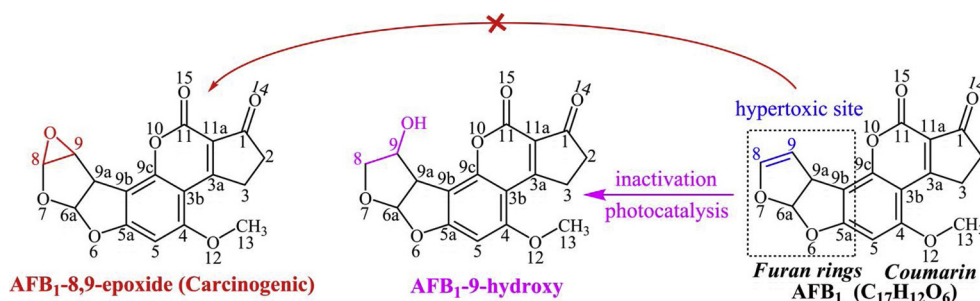
AFB₁-DNA can induce the gene mutations that prevent the normal action of tumor suppressor genes, and promote cancer to develop and grow [5,6]. It was found that reducing aflatoxins exposure to non-detectable levels could decrease hepatocellular carcinoma cases by about 23% [7]. Therefore, on condition that the hypertoxic site (C8=C9 double bond) of AFB₁ was destroyed or inactivated, the toxicity and carcinogenicity could be sharply diminished.

Due to high stability of AFB₁, traditional strategies for the AFB₁ detoxification often required harsh condition and/or more energy consumption, e.g., gamma ray radiation [8], ozone [9] and enzymatic detoxification [10]. Although most of attentions had been paid to the efficiency of detoxification and identification of intermediate product, the comprehensive studies on mechanism of detoxification reaction such as confirmation of reactive groups, interaction sites were scarce. Recently, photocatalysis had been proved to exhibit activity on AFB₁ mitigation in aqueous solution by our previous report [11]. Moreover, it

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Scheme 1. The structure of AFB₁, AFB₁-8,9-epoxide and AFB₁-9-hydroxy.

was supposed that one of initial intermediate products (named as AFB₁-9-hydroxy) formed through photocatalytic reaction on the hypertoxic site of furan ring in AFB₁ (shown in Scheme 1). However, little specific mechanism information about this photocatalytic inactivation of toxic site in AFB₁ had been studied so far. Obviously, an in-depth research on reaction mechanism, especially on this key site that determines the carcinogenic toxicity of AFB₁, is desirable for our understanding about this issue and its application in future.

Because the photocatalytic reaction was performed in the present of water and oxygen conditions, several main reactive oxygen species (ROS) including hydroxyl radical ($\cdot\text{OH}$), superoxide radical ($\cdot\text{O}_2^-$) and hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) produced from H_2O and O_2 reacting with the photogenerated holes and electrons. In this case, the performance of photoreaction was determined by the type and amount of ROS, which depended on the properties of catalyst and the reaction conditions. Therefore, the analysis of ROS reaction was significant for revealing the photoreaction mechanism. Among these active oxygen species, $\cdot\text{OH}$ radical with admirably high reactivity was regarded as the most effective reactant for pollutants mitigation, which could be directly produced from the oxidation of H_2O or OH^- and indirectly produced from $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ on the surface through multi-step reactions. Generally, the $\cdot\text{OH}$ radical reactions with organic pollutants were known as two reactions pathway: addition to unsaturated carbon bonds ($\text{C}=\text{C}$) and H-atom abstraction from $\text{C}-\text{H}$ or $\text{O}-\text{H}$ bonds. In this case, it seemed that AFB₁-9-hydroxy was the product of $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals addition reaction on the $\text{C}8=\text{C}9$ double band in AFB₁, however, the actual role of $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals and other ROS on the toxic site of AFB₁ required more evidences.

Therefore, the aim of this study is to obtain more profound understanding on photocatalytic inactivation mechanism of the hypertoxic site in aflatoxin B₁. Firstly, development of photocatalytic system with high productivity of ROS such as $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals is essential. Among various photocatalytic systems, the all-solid-state Z-schematic system has been regarded as a commendable system for environmental remediation application, which can promote the separation of photo-generated charges and utilize the excellent redox potential at two reaction sites [12–16]. As a visible light responding catalyst, tungsten oxide (WO_3) with low cost, environment-friendly and stability is regarded as an excellent candidate for constructing Z-scheme composites. Most important, WO_3 has an applicable bandgap (ca. 2.6 eV) with a more positive valence band (VB), and the holes on VB can directly oxidize the OH^- or H_2O to $\cdot\text{OH}$ [17,18]. Current researches on Z-scheme system associated with WO_3 mainly focuses on one-dimensional (1D) and two-dimensional (2D) structures such as nanosheets [19], nanorods [20,21], nanowires [22] and nanoparticles [23], which have been widely applied in pollutants mitigation and solar energy conversion. Compared with 1D and 2D structural semiconductors, oriented 3D micro/nanostructures often possess unique photoelectric and catalytic properties, which could provide more charge transfer pathways and more active sites [24–27]. However, due to the special properties of tungsten element, it is difficult to control the morphology of WO_3 into well-defined 3D nanostructure through facile and mild methods without specific template and harsh reaction conditions [28].

Therefore, it is challenging to fabricate the uniform, stable and 3D nanostructured WO_3 in the mild conditions, and then construct Z-schematic composites for photocatalytic application.

To construct the Z-scheme composites, the band gap of two components must be suitable, indicating that it is necessary to select a semiconductor photocatalyst matched with WO_3 . Cadmium sulfide (CdS) with large light-harvesting capacities, more negative CB potential and high-energy conversion efficiencies is regarded as a candidate for constructing Z-scheme composites. Moreover, it was found that CdS nanoparticles could be uniformly deposited on the surface of WO_3 through facile precipitation method to construct efficient Z-scheme composites [27]. Therefore, using CdS to form Z-scheme composite with WO_3 may be an appropriate strategy. Most importantly, combination of analytic technologies is a good way to study the mechanism and pathway of ROS reaction with pollutant. The detailed product analysis by High Resolution Mass Spectrum (HRMS), reactants with stable isotope labeling and theoretical calculation are effective measures. By these approaches, the deeper and better understanding can be gained from both theoretical and experimental analysis.

Herein, the photocatalytic inactivation mechanism of the hypertoxic site $\text{C}8=\text{C}9$ double band in AFB₁ was revealed. A highly efficient Z-schematic system composed of clew-like WO_3 and CdS nanoparticles was facilely fabricated, which was proved to produce more $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals that preferentially inactivate the hypertoxic site of AFB₁ in aqueous solution under visible light irradiation. Most of all, the reaction mechanism of $\cdot\text{OH}$ radical on the toxic site $\text{C}8=\text{C}9$ double band of AFB₁ were discussed systematically through the structure identification of intermediates, ^{18}O isotope labeling experiments and DFT theoretical calculations for the first time. The reasons of enhanced performance were also investigated by the solar light adsorption, photo-generated charges separation efficiency, lifetime and photoelectric property of as-prepared composites. Finally, the toxicities of main intermediates after photocatalytic treatment were also evaluated.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Chemicals and reagents

All chemicals and reagents were analytical grade without further purification treatment, which were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich or Sinopharm Chemical Reagent. In addition, chromatographic grade reagents such as methyl alcohol, acetonitrile were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich for high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) and HRMS. The ultrapure water derived from a Milli-Q SP Reagent Water system was used for all solution.

2.2. Material synthesis and characterization

Clew-like WO_3 were prepared by a microwave-assisted hydrothermal method similar to the previous reports with modifications [29,30], and without fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO) substrate. Firstly, 10% HCl (wt%) was slowly added into 100 mL 10 mM sodium tungstate

solution until no more precipitate generated. The precipitate was centrifuged and washed with ultrapure water for three times, then dispersed in ultrapure water to form a suspension. After that, 10 mM oxalic acid was added into the above suspension under powerfully stirring, and then the same amount CH_3COONa as capping agent was added after that the suspension became transparent. The pH value of solution was adjusted to 0.8 by HCl solution, and then the solution was transferred into a tetrafluoroethylene tube (50 mL), and heated in a microwave oven (Mars X, CEM Corporation, USA). The temperature was from 25 °C to 180 °C in 20 min under the microwave power of 800 W, and then kept at 180 °C for 1 h under ordinary pressure. After reaction, the solid was washed with ethyl alcohol and ultrapure water for three times, respectively. Finally, the solid were calcined at 500 °C for 1 h to transform crystal and remove the organic residues.

The CdS/WO_3 composites were synthesized via a simple precipitation method. In general, 0.1 g of as-prepared WO_3 was dispersed in 50 mL of ultrapure water, and a certain volume (0 mL, 0.5 mL, 1.0 mL, 2 mL and 4 mL) of 0.05 M $\text{Cd}(\text{CH}_3\text{COO})_2$ solution was added in suspension drop by drop with stirring. After 20 min, the same volume of 0.05 M Na_2S solution was added dropwise, and then kept stirring for 30 min. Finally, precipitates were washed several times with ultrapure water, and dried at 80 °C for 12 h for further characterization and photocatalytic test. According to the initial mass ratio (wt%) of CdS to WO_3 , the $\text{CdS}-\text{WO}_3$ samples were noted as CW-3.61%, CW-7.22%, CW-10.83% and CW-14.44%. The actual mass ratio and specific surface area of the samples were shown in Table S2 in *Supplementary data*. The detailed morphological, structural and photoelectric characterizations of as-prepared catalysts can be also found in *Supplementary data*.

2.3. Photocatalytic measurement

The photocatalytic reaction was performed in a reaction cell (Pyrex glass) under visible light irradiation ($\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$), and the intermediates or products after photoreaction were identified by HRMS (Thermo Scientific Orbitrap Fusion hybrid mass spectrometer). The detailed information could be found in *Supplementary data*. Finally, the toxicity assessment was verified by the cell viability assay according to our previous work [31].

2.4. Theoretical methods

All of the calculations were performed with Gaussian 09 software [32]. Geometry optimization of all the minima and involved transition states were carried out at the B3LYP [33,34] level with the 6-31 + G(d,p) basis set for C, H and O. Default convergence criteria were used. The vibrational frequency calculations were conducted at the same level of theory as geometry optimization to confirm whether each optimized structure is an energy minimum. The solvent effects were considered using the polarizable continuum model (PCM) [35,36] with the as-phase-optimized structures as the initial geometries.

3. Result and discussion

3.1. Morphology and crystal phase analyses

Fig. 1a displayed that the as-prepared WO_3 after calcination presented uniform clew-like structure with diameter size of 6–7 μm , which was composed of a great deal of nanoblocks with length size of about 100–200 nm (Fig. 1b). From TEM image of Fig. S1a, it was found that the accumulative nanoblocks presented oval image, which could not be transmitted by light due to thick structure. However, thin nanoblocks could be observed clearly on the edge of WO_3 clew from Fig. S1b. To obtain further information of the microstructure, the HRTEM image (Fig. 3c) was demonstrated. The WO_3 showed obvious lattice fringes with a d -spacing of 0.37 nm that was ascribed to the (002) lattice plane of monoclinic WO_3 [27,38], which was coincident with the

following XRD results.

The HRTEM of CW-10.83% composite was demonstrated in Fig. 3d. It could be clearly seen that two kinds of lattice fringe formed a tight connection, indicating that CdS nanoparticles with particle size of 4–5 nm via precipitation method were successfully located on the surface of the WO_3 . The different lattice spacing values were 0.37 nm and 0.336 nm, which were consistent with the (002) lattice plane of monoclinic WO_3 and the (111) lattice plane of cubic CdS, respectively [27,39]. Furthermore, the EDS mapping of CW-10.83% showed that composite included the four elements (W, O, Cd and S), which were commendably dispersed in as-prepared composite. Above characterizations collectively indicated that CdS nanoparticles uniformly combined with WO_3 , and this intimate combination between two semiconductors may facilitate photogenerated charges separation and transfer, which can be of benefit to enhance the photoactivities.

The XRD patterns (Fig. 2) indicated that the as-prepared sample derived from microwave assisted hydrothermal synthesis was the orthorhombic $\text{WO}_3 \cdot 1/3\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (JCPDF 87-1203) [29,37]. After annealed at 500 °C for 1 h, WO_3 transferred to the pure monoclinic phase (JCPDF 83-0951), which could be also found in the previous report [29]. The CdS sample with three main diffraction peaks could be ascribed to (111), (220), and (311) plane diffraction of the cubic phase (JCPDF 80-0019). Furthermore, it was found that no distinct diffraction peaks shifted in all CdS/WO_3 composites as shown in Fig. S2, indicating that the composites solely consisted of CdS and WO_3 . No diffraction peaks of CdS were found in the CdS/WO_3 composites, which was due to low amount and relatively low XRD diffraction intensity of CdS. However, the peak intensity of CW-14.44% was weaker than the pure WO_3 after annealing, which may be due to that lower relative of WO_3 in composites, and CdS with weak crystallization on the surface of WO_3 blocks X-ray and coherent scattering [27]. In amplifying patterns of composites from $2\theta = 26^\circ$ – 27° (right of Fig. S2), the peak at about $2\theta = 26.6^\circ$ became wider with the increase of CdS concentration, signifying that the more (111) plane of CdS exposed in samples. To identify the surface chemical compositions and valence states, the XPS results and analyses were presented in Fig. S3 and *Supplementary data*.

3.2. Photocatalytic efficiencies and photoelectric properties of catalysts

The efficiency of catalysts for catalyzing AFB₁ inactivation were investigated in aqueous solution under visible light irradiation. It was observed that the AFB₁ could not be reduced under visible light irradiation without catalysts or in the presence of catalyst without visible light irradiation. As shown in Fig. 3 a and Table S2, it was found with the increase of CdS content, the adsorption of AFB₁ faintly increased, and CW-10.83% showed the best activity compared with the single catalyst and other composites. With the content of CdS increasing, the catalytic efficiency enhanced gradually, which may be due to that better combination formed between WO_3 and CdS. However, when the concentration of CdS was up to 14.44%, the C_t/C_0 rate of AFB₁ decreased from 95.5% to 80.2%. This decrease may be caused by that the excessive of CdS could prevent the light absorption and photo-generated charges transfer of WO_3 , and decrease the active sites on the surface of WO_3 . Furthermore, the stability of as-prepared catalyst were the important properties for long-term utilization in practical applications. As shown in Figs. 3b and S4, it was worth noting that the slight reduced photocatalytic performance of CW-10.83% after four cycles, and the main peaks of XRD and XPS were not changed after long-term photoreaction. In addition, the element contents from XPS and the actual mass concentration from Inductively Coupled Plasma Optical Emission Spectrometer (ICP-OES) showed that there was no obvious change before and after long-term reaction (Table S3 and S4). This illustrated that the catalyst exhibited the well chemically and physically stability. In addition, it was found that the as-prepared composites could be conveniently separated from aqueous solution by centrifugation with 3000 rpm. Thus, above results indicated that CW-10.83% was

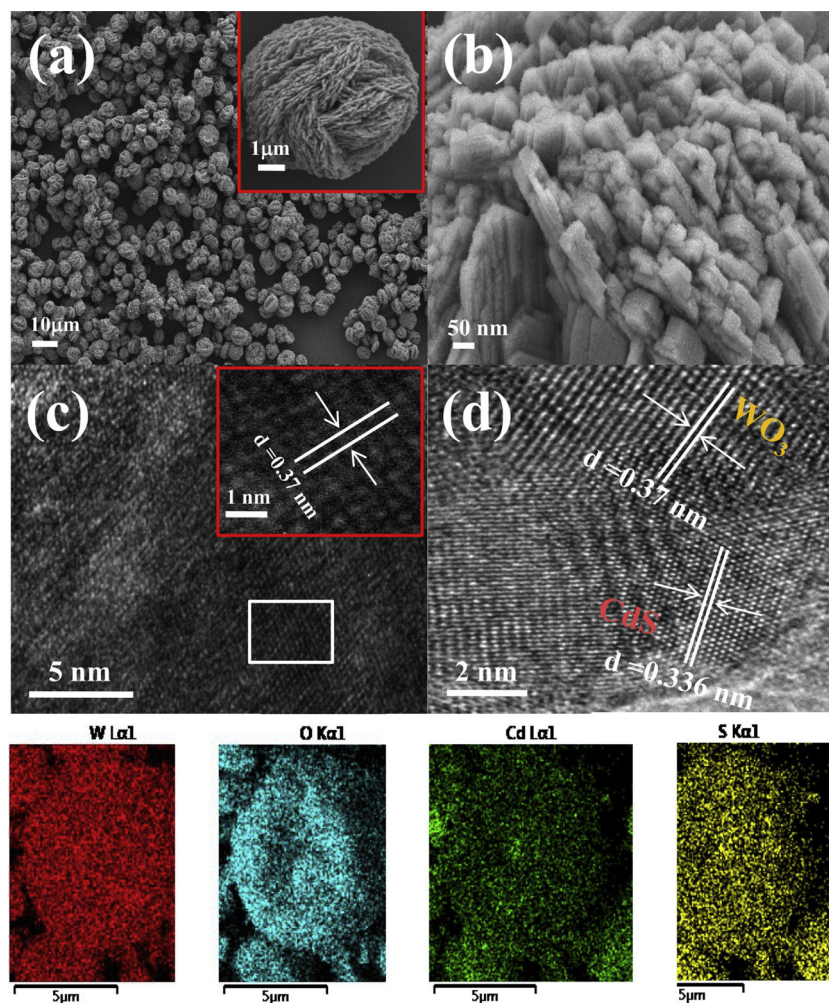


Fig. 1. SEM of WO₃ (a, b), HRTEM of WO₃ (c) and CW-10.83% (d), and W, O, Cd, S elements mapping image in below.

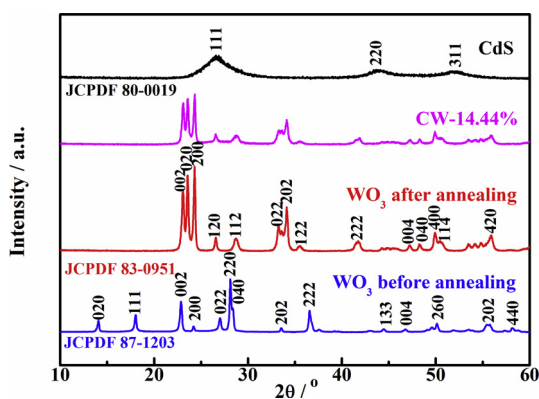


Fig. 2. XRD patterns of as-prepared WO₃, CdS and the composites.

an efficient catalyst and could be available reused.

To investigate the reasons of enhanced photocatalytic activity, the photoluminescence spectra (PL) and transient PL decay curves were performed to evaluate the separation efficiency and lifetime of charges, respectively. From Fig. S5a, the strong emission peak at ca. 465 nm was ascribed to the fast recombination of photogenerated electron-hole pairs on the surface of WO₃, while the broad peaks between 500 nm and 550 nm were attributed to recombination of trapped charge carriers at surface defect of CdS [40]. The PL emission intensity of WO₃ was sharply quenched after CdS nanoparticles deposited, and the CW-

10.83% showed the weakest PL intensity, indicating that optimized concentration of CdS in composites could effectively decrease the recombination of photogenerated electrons and holes. Moreover, the transient PL decay curves (Fig. S5b) of catalysts were applied to evaluate the kinetics course of charges under light irradiation. After exponential fitting and calculating, the charge carrier lifetime of WO₃, CdS, CW-3.61%, CW-7.22%, CW-10.83% and CW-14.44% were 1.007, 1.566, 1.713, 1.943, 2.762 and 2.145 ns, respectively. The prolonged lifetime of charges can play a vital role in enhancing photocatalytic activity, in other words, more electrons and holes could take part in the photoreaction. From above characterizations, it could be concluded that the optimized content of CdS deposited on WO₃ were beneficial to charges separation and electron/hole transfer, and then enhance the photocatalytic performance.

The photoelectrochemical properties of catalysts were also evaluated by transient photocurrent and electrochemical impedance spectra (EIS). As shown in Fig. S5c, the transient photocurrent of catalysts on FTO during light on-off cycles repeated regularly, and the CW-10.83% displayed best photo-responsive performance by the intensity of generated photocurrent among these catalysts. It was found that the slight decrease of photocurrent curves with time, which was caused by two reasons, 1) the light source may spend a moment to reach stability, 2) the reduced interaction between catalysts and FTO in electrolyte solution under light irradiation. In addition, the EIS of CW-10.83% (shown in Fig. S5d) also presented smallest diameter of the Nyquist plots, indicating the lowered resistance of charges transfer after suitable combination between CdS and WO₃. Thus, the highest efficiency of

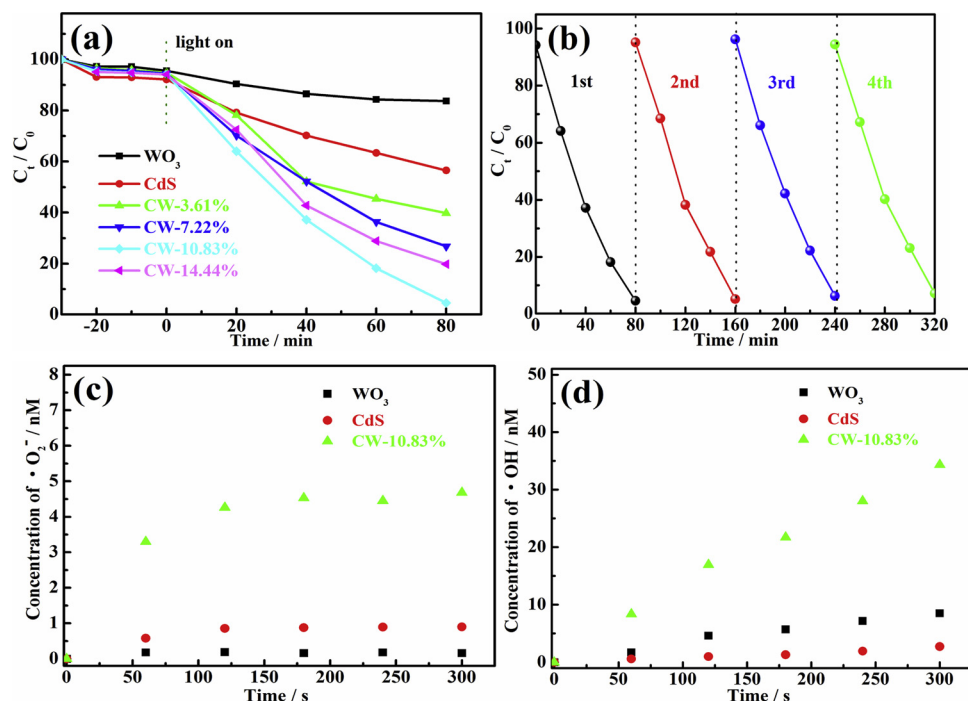


Fig. 3. Photocatalytic inactivation of AFB₁ over as-prepared catalysts under visible light irradiation (a), cycling tests for photocatalytic inactivation of AFB₁ over CW-10.83% (b), the $\cdot O_2^-$ concentration (c) and $\cdot OH$ concentration (d) measured from chemiluminescence method in the presence of Methoxy Cypridina Luciferin Analog and the coumarin fluorescence probe method over CW-10.83% under visible light irradiation, respectively.

photo-responsive performance and best conductivity were other important evidences for the enhanced photocatalytic activities of CW-10.83%.

3.3. Photocatalytic inactivation mechanism on C8=C9 in AFB₁

Detection of main ROS in photoreaction was the important evidence to analyze the mechanism of photocatalytic inactivation. Fig. 3c and d showed the concentration of $\cdot O_2^-$ and $\cdot OH$ radicals as a function of time according to previous methods [41]. The growth of $\cdot OH$ radicals accumulated with time, which was different from the curve of $\cdot O_2^-$ radicals. These results in growth feature were due to the difference in two detection methods. The amount of $\cdot OH$ radicals was measured from the accumulation of reaction product, while the amount of $\cdot O_2^-$ radicals were detected at each moment that contained competitive reactions between degeneration and generation [41]. From Fig. 3c and d, it could be found that CW-10.83% presented the much better productivity of $\cdot OH$ and $\cdot O_2^-$ radicals generation during the photoreaction compared with CdS and WO₃, which was beneficial to explain the enhanced performance over CW-10.83% for toxic site inactivation.

Fig. 4 presented the total ion chromatogram of photocatalytic products of AFB₁ in aqueous solution over CW-10.83%. It could be found

that the concentration of AFB₁ decreased with irradiation time, indicating that the photoreaction occurred. The four kinds of main intermediate products formed regularly, and the intermediates at retention time of 5.37 min, 7.84 min and 8.39 min were ascribed to C₁₇H₁₄O₇, C₁₄H₁₆O₄ and C₁₂H₁₀O₄, respectively, which can be also found in our previous work under the same optimized extraction and MS conditions [11]. However, there was a new intermediate product (C₁₄H₁₄O₃) that could not found in previous study, which might be due to that the different number of active radicals formed in presence of different catalysts. The molecular structure of C₁₄H₁₄O₃ were proposed according to the MS/MS spectrum and the fragmentation formation (Fig. S6).

The nominal level (NL) of intermediate products from Fig. 4 were collected in Table 1, which reflected the responsive value and concentration of different target molecules. Obviously, the C₁₇H₁₄O₇ (AFB₁-9-hydroxy) as a main intermediate was detected, and its concentration increased from 0 min to 80 min, and then decreased with irradiation time. This indicated that the double bond of furan ring (C8=C9) may be easily and preferentially attacked by active radicals such as $\cdot OH$ during the photoreaction to form AFB₁-9-hydroxy. After 80 min irradiation, due to only a little AFB₁ in the solution from Fig. 3a and Fig. 4, the inactivation of AFB₁ to C₁₇H₁₄O₇ (AFB₁-9-hydroxy)

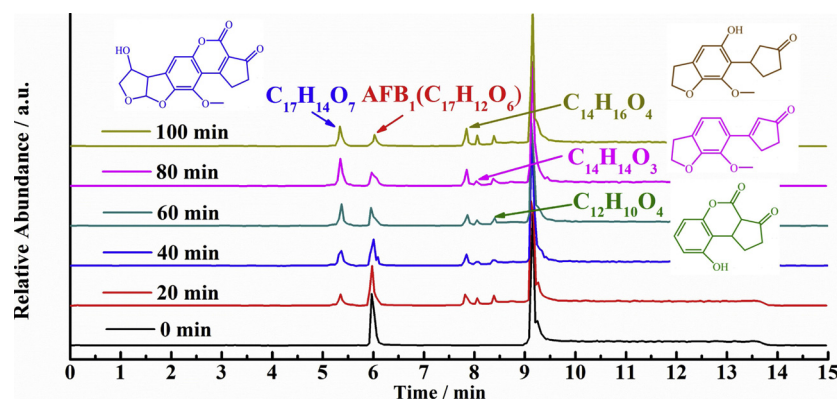


Fig. 4. Total ion chromatogram of intermediate products of AFB₁ in aqueous solution over CW-10.83% under visible light irradiation.

Table 1

The nominal level (NL 1×10^6) of AFB₁ and four intermediate products in different time.

Time(min)	AFB ₁ (C ₁₇ H ₁₂ O ₆)	C ₁₇ H ₁₄ O ₇	C ₁₄ H ₁₆ O ₄	C ₁₄ H ₁₄ O ₃	C ₁₂ H ₁₀ O ₄
0	39.27	0	0	0	0
20	30.26	8.99	8.78	5.91	6.22
40	20.33	11.63	8.89	4.43	4.73
60	13.11	16.80	8.10	5.12	5.25
80	9.66	20.94	10.23	4.63	6.01
100	8.26	15.26	13.57	8.15	7.56

might slow down sharply. And then AFB₁-9-hydroxy may be converted to other intermediate products through ROS reaction with longer irradiation time. This proposed pathway of AFB₁ inactivation to AFB₁-9-hydroxy could be also inferred through comparing our previous works with present findings. From their MS results, it was found that the NL intensity of AFB₁-9-hydroxy was higher in the presence of CW-10.83% in 80 min (NL: 20.94×10^6) than that of g-C₃N₄ in our previous reports (NL: 8.12×10^6 in 120 min) [11], which may be ascribed to that the more $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals generated in the presence of CW-10.83%. As for g-C₃N₄, the formation of limited $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals may be indirectly from $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ via multi-reactions ($\text{O}_2 + e^- \rightarrow \cdot\text{O}_2^- + e^- + \text{H}^+ \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + e^- \rightarrow \cdot\text{OH}$) [42,43], while in the present of CW-10.83% with effective charges separation and electron/hole transfer, a large number of $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals could generate from directly oxidizing OH^- or H_2O to $\cdot\text{OH}$ on the VB of WO_3 . Therefore, it was deduced that a large number of $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals produced from this effective photocatalytic system were most likely to react with the C8=C9 to form more AFB₁-9-hydroxy, which was further confirmed in following sections.

To confirm the role of active radicals in photocatalytic inactivation of AFB₁, the radical trapping experiments and HRMS were conjunctively performed via adding different scavengers into the solution before the photocatalytic process. The $m/z = 331.0813$ was chosen as molecular ion peak of AFB₁-9-hydroxy, which was monitored by HRMS under different conditions. In Fig. 5, it was found that the NL of AFB₁-9-hydroxy decreased sharply in the presence of *tert*-butanol (t-BuOH), indicating the $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals played a very important role in inactivation of AFB₁ to AFB₁-9-hydroxy. And in the presence of 1,4-benzoquinone (BQ) and the same amount of t-BuOH as the previous trapping test, the inactivation activity of AFB₁ to AFB₁-9-hydroxy was further restrained, but the inactivation performance is less effective than the $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals. This indicated that the $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ active radicals also took part in this inactivation reaction, which might be transferred indirectly to $\cdot\text{OH}$ as mentioned before. Therefore, it could be found from above results that the $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals were the main reactants for the inactivation of AFB₁ to AFB₁-9-hydroxy over CW-10.83%.

For deeply understanding the mentioned pathways for the inactivation of AFB₁, stable isotope-labeling investigations were carried

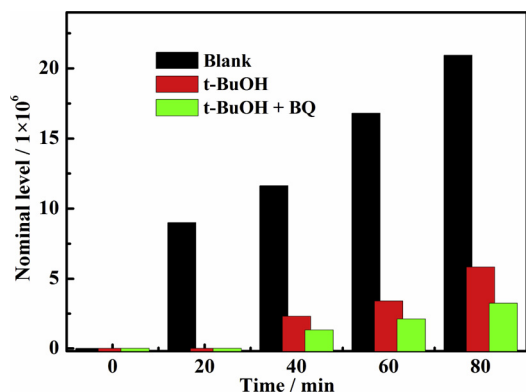


Fig. 5. The nominal level of AFB₁-9-hydroxy ($m/z = 331.0813$) with irradiation time in the present of different scavenger conditions over CW-10.83%.

out. Owing to that the participation of the dissolved oxygen and solvent H_2O is indispensable in photoreaction, the photocatalytic inactivation of AFB₁ were performed using labeled $^{18}\text{O}_2$ ($> 97\%$)/ H_2^{16}O and $50\% \text{H}_2^{18}\text{O} + 50\% \text{H}_2^{16}\text{O}$ in atmospheric condition, respectively. The isotope abundance of the AFB₁-9-hydroxy was recorded by HRMS in both conditions, which was shown in Fig. 6. In the presence of $^{18}\text{O}_2/\text{H}_2^{16}\text{O}$, it could be found that the products contained the isotope peaks of $m/z = 333.09457$ with weaker isotope abundance, which mean that there was one labeled oxygen atom from $^{18}\text{O}_2$ participated in the photoreaction. This further demonstrated that the indirect pathway of $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ to $\cdot\text{OH}$ ($\text{O}_2 + e^- \rightarrow \cdot\text{O}_2^- + e^- + \text{H}^+ \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + e^- \rightarrow \cdot\text{OH}$) as previous inference was feasible. When the photoreaction was carried out in the $50\% \text{H}_2^{18}\text{O} + 50\% \text{H}_2^{16}\text{O}$ with $^{16}\text{O}_2$ from air, the isotope peaks of $m/z = 333.09464$ showed the higher abundance than that of $^{18}\text{O}_2/\text{H}_2^{16}\text{O}$. Isotope-labeling researches indicated that the more $\cdot\text{OH}$ could be derived from H_2^{18}O or $^{18}\text{OH}^-$ oxidation by holes over CW-10.83%, and then attacked the C8=C9 site to form AFB₁-9-hydroxy ($m/z = 333.09464$), which was consistent with the trapping test. Therefore, it can be concluded that above experimental results was consistent with the previous proposed mechanism.

3.4. Theoretical calculations

Although the AFB₁-9-hydroxy (C₁₇H₁₄O₇) was also identified as one of products in other's works which utilized gamma ray radiation [44], high-voltage atmospheric cold plasma (HVACP) [45] and ozone treatment [46] to degrade AFB₁, the reasonable explanations for the formation of AFB₁-9-hydroxy were deficient in these studies. Obviously, the reasons for $\cdot\text{OH}$ radical reacting with C9 site rather than other site of AFB₁ need deeper confirmation. In order to further confirm the feasibility of above proposed reaction mechanism, theoretical calculations were applied to investigate the hydroxyl radical reaction on AFB₁, especially for the toxic site of C8=C9 site. The B3LYP function with the 6-31 + G (d,p) basis set for atoms C, H and O were used to geometry optimization of all the minima and transition states, and the calculations were performed by the Gaussian09 package in water solution. To study the reaction properties of reactants, the optimized configuration and the electrostatic potentials of AFB₁ were shown in Fig. 7a and b, respectively. It was found that the strong negative region concentrates on the oxygen atom of lactone and adjacent five-membered ring, while all the unperturbed hydrogen atoms showed positive electrostatic potential especially the hydrogen atom of furan ring double ring (C8=C9) group and methoxyl (OCH₃) group.

In the principle of photocatalytic reaction, it was commonly supposed that generated $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals reacted with adsorbed species via $\cdot\text{OH}$ -addition or hydrogen abstraction reaction in aqueous solution [47,48]. From previous the results of HRMS and ^{18}O isotopic tracing, it was found that the $\cdot\text{OH}$ -addition was more probable between AFB₁ and $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals in initial reaction. Moreover, the $\cdot\text{OH}$ -addition reaction generally occurred at unsaturated carbon bonds [49], which depended strongly on the activity of reactive site. However, among the 17 possible carbon positions, addition reaction on C8=C9 site was most feasible, because the C=C double band (C9b=C9c, C5a=C5 and C4=C3b) in benzene ring and C3a=C11a band were associated with strong conjugated π bond, which were more difficult to occur addition reaction than C8=C9. The natural bond orbital (NBO) analysis was used to estimate which unsaturated carbon atom was most potentially attacked by $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals. The calculated natural atomic charge of C, H, O atoms were recorded in the table of Fig. 8. It could be found that the natural charge of C9 (No. C28 atom) was -0.32938 , which was more negative than that of C8 (No. C29 atom, 0.09827). This indicated that, since the $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals was electrophilic in nature, the $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals were inclined to attack the C9 site with atomic charges rather than C8 site and other sites.

In addition, the coupling reaction of AFB₁ and $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals was determined by using frontier molecule orbital theory [50]. As shown

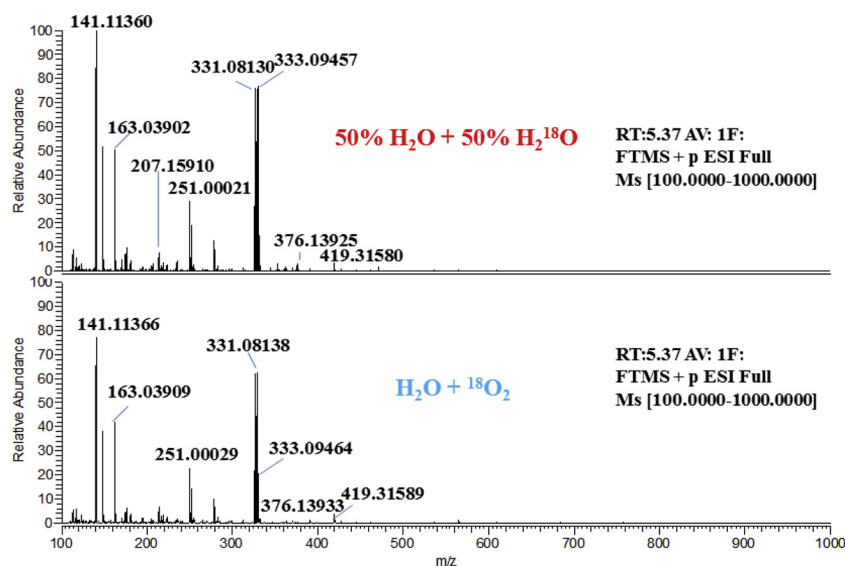


Fig. 6. Selected ion monitoring of AFB₁-9-hydroxy using ¹⁸O isotope-labeling over CW-10.83% under visible light irradiation.

the Fig. 9, the highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) and the lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) of two reactants were calculated and given. It can be found that the largest interaction should occur between the HOMO of AFB₁ and the β-LUMO of the \cdot OH radicals, and the energy gap was as low as $\Delta E = 1.31$ eV, which suggested that the interaction between these frontier orbitals was very strong. Therefore, based on above theoretical calculations and experimental results, it can be proposed that the \cdot OH radical addition can preferentially occur on the C8=C9 double band of AFB₁, and the \cdot OH radical is most likely to interact with the C9 position.

3.5. Charges transfer mechanism of CdS/WO₃ composites

In order to investigate the mechanism of charge transfer over the composites, DRS and Mott-Schottky measures were used to estimate the band structures. As shown in the DRS spectrums (Fig. S7a), WO₃ could absorb visible light shorter than 465 nm, while the CdS had the edge of light adsorption at 580 nm. With the increasing content of CdS, a red shift of the absorption edge was observed, which was confirmed by the color of the composites shown in Fig. S7a. The following formula (1) was used to calculate the band-gap:

$$ah\nu = A(h\nu - E_g)^{n/2} \quad (1)$$

where a , $h\nu$, E_g and A are absorption index, light energy, bandgap energy, and constant value of semiconductor, respectively. The n value of CdS and WO₃ was 4 (for indirect transition) and 1 (for direct transition), respectively [39,51,52]. The bandgap of pure CdS and WO₃ were about 2.14 eV and 2.66 eV, respectively (Fig. S7b). The Mott-Schottky plots of

CdS and WO₃ (Fig. S7c) revealed the positive slope in the linear region, indicating that they were n-type behavior [53]. For n-type semiconductors, the bottom edge of CB was close to the flat band potential that could be calculated by the X-intercept. The bottom edge CB of CdS and WO₃ were approximately -1.26 V and -0.07 V vs. SCE (Saturated calomel electrode) at pH7.00, respectively. After calculation based on the formula (2), (3), the CB and VB of CdS were measured to be -0.61 V and 1.53 V (vs. NHE, pH0.0), while that of WO₃ were 0.58 V and 3.24 V (vs. NHE, pH0.0), respectively.

$$E(\text{vs. NHE, pH} = 0) = E(\text{vs. SCE, pH} = 7) + 0.0591\text{pH} + 0.24 \text{ V} \quad (2)$$

$$E_{\text{CB}} = E_{\text{VB}} - E_g \quad (3)$$

The ESR measurement was also used to detect directly the formation of $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ and $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals. It was found that no any characteristic peaks could be detected under dark condition over CW-10.83%. Moreover, the $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ signals over WO₃ and the $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals signals in the presence of CdS were hardly detected under visible light irradiation, respectively, which were consistent with the detection of $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ and $\cdot\text{OH}$ (Fig. 3c and d). This was due to that the potential of CB in WO₃ was more positive than the potential of $\text{O}_2/\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ (-0.33 V vs NHE), and the potential of VB in CdS was more negative than that of $\text{OH}^-/\cdot\text{OH}$ ($+2.4$ V vs NHE) [55–57]. As depicted in Fig. 10a and Fig. 10b, the characteristic peaks of DMPO- $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ and DMPO- $\cdot\text{OH}$ adducts could be observed under visible light irradiation, and the intensity of characteristic signal increased with time, indicating that continuous $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ and $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals formed during the reaction. However, the heterojunction-type could not explain the above radical generation as the previous study [54]. If the photogenerated electrons from CB of CdS

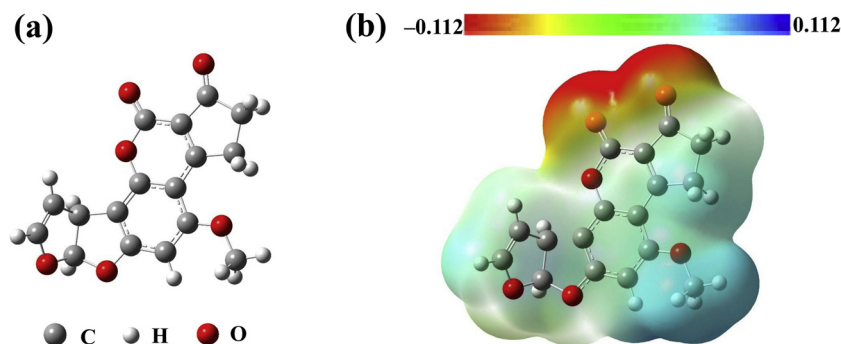


Fig. 7. Optimized geometry (a) and molecular electrostatic potential map of AFB₁ (b).

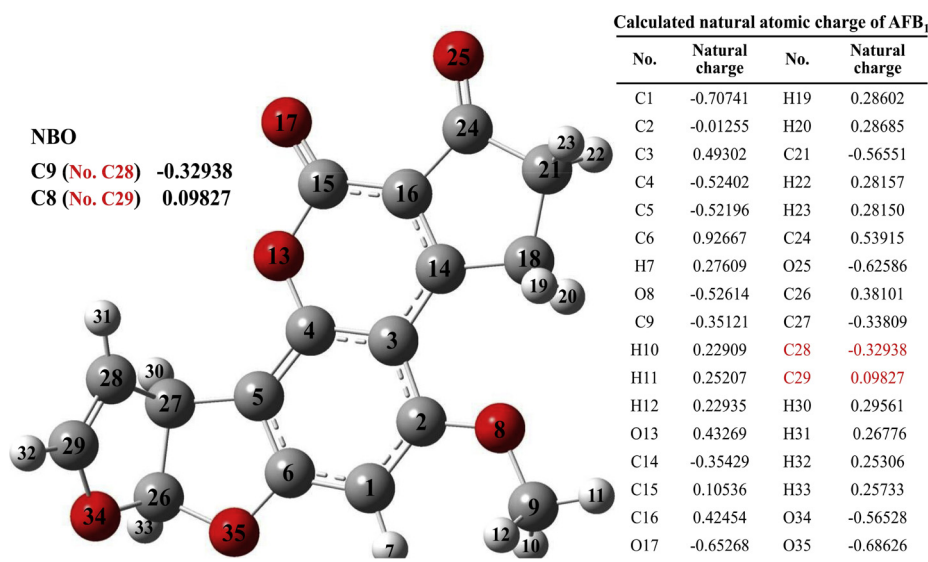


Fig. 8. The atomic charge of C, H, O in AFB₁ from natural bond orbital (NBO).

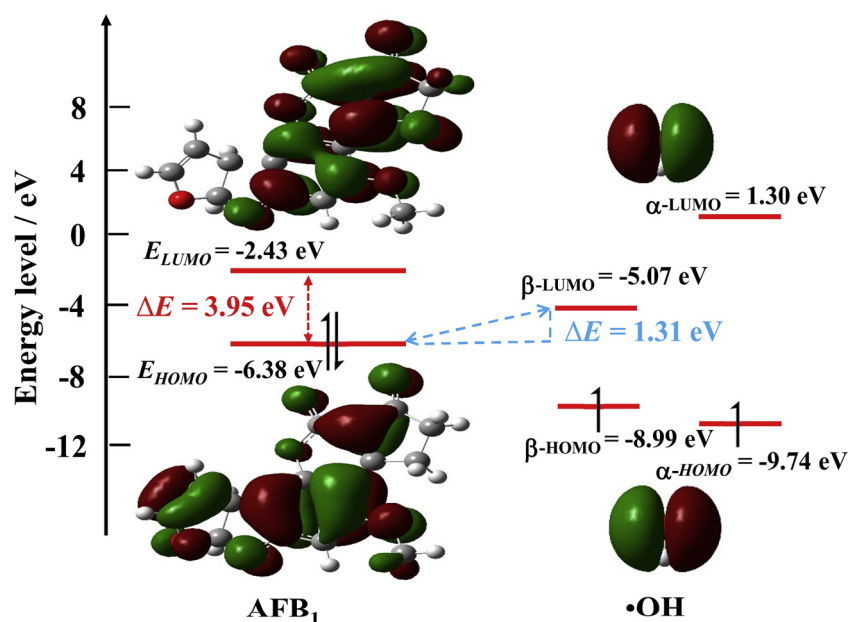


Fig. 9. Molecular orbitals and electron distribution in the frontier orbitals of the reaction partners for the $\cdot\text{OH}$ radical addition to AFB₁.

transferred to the CB of WO₃, the electrons on the CB of WO₃ cannot reduce absorbed O₂ to form $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ radicals. In addition, the holes on the VB of CdS also can not promote the formation of $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals. Therefore, it could be concluded that the mechanism of CdS/WO₃ composites should be direct Z-scheme (Fig. 10c). In this case, the electrons in the CB of WO₃ would transfer and recombine with the holes from the VB of CdS, leading to facilitate efficient charges separation of each component. Then, the electrons on the CB of CdS and holes on the VB of WO₃ accumulated and participated in the formation of $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ and $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals. Thus, not only the photocatalytic efficiency was improved by the excellent separation of charges, but also the better redox ability can be utilized to produce more radicals.

Based on above discussions and conclusions, we proposed that the CdS/WO₃ composites presented all-solid-state Z-scheme system for preferentially photocatalytic inactivating the toxic site of AFB₁, shown in Scheme 2. Under visible light irradiation, CdS and WO₃ were excited to generate the e^-/h^+ pairs. The e^- in the CB of WO₃ could directly transfer and recombine with h^+ in the VB of CdS. Then, the e^- and h^+

with high energy on the CdS and WO₃ actuated the photocatalytic redox processes, respectively. The h^+ on the WO₃ could directly oxide the OH⁻ or H₂O to generate $\cdot\text{OH}$, while the e^- on CdS could reduce O₂ to $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$, and then indirectly to form $\cdot\text{OH}$. These $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals rapidly and preferentially attacked C9 site of the unsaturated double band C8=C9 in AFB₁, and then undergo electron and proton transfer [58,59] to form AFB₁-9-hydroxy. Most important, in order to prove the efficient inactivation of toxic site, the cytotoxicity of intermediates and products were investigated by cell viability assay (Cell Counting Kit-8). It could be found from Fig. S8 that the viability of L-02 liver cells reduced weekly in the present of intermediates and products, while the cell viability decreased sharply under AFB₁ treatment. This indicated that the main hypertoxic site (C8=C9 double band) of AFB₁ was inactivated during photoreaction, and the present photocatalytic system was a promising and high-efficiency for reducing toxicity or risk of AFB₁.

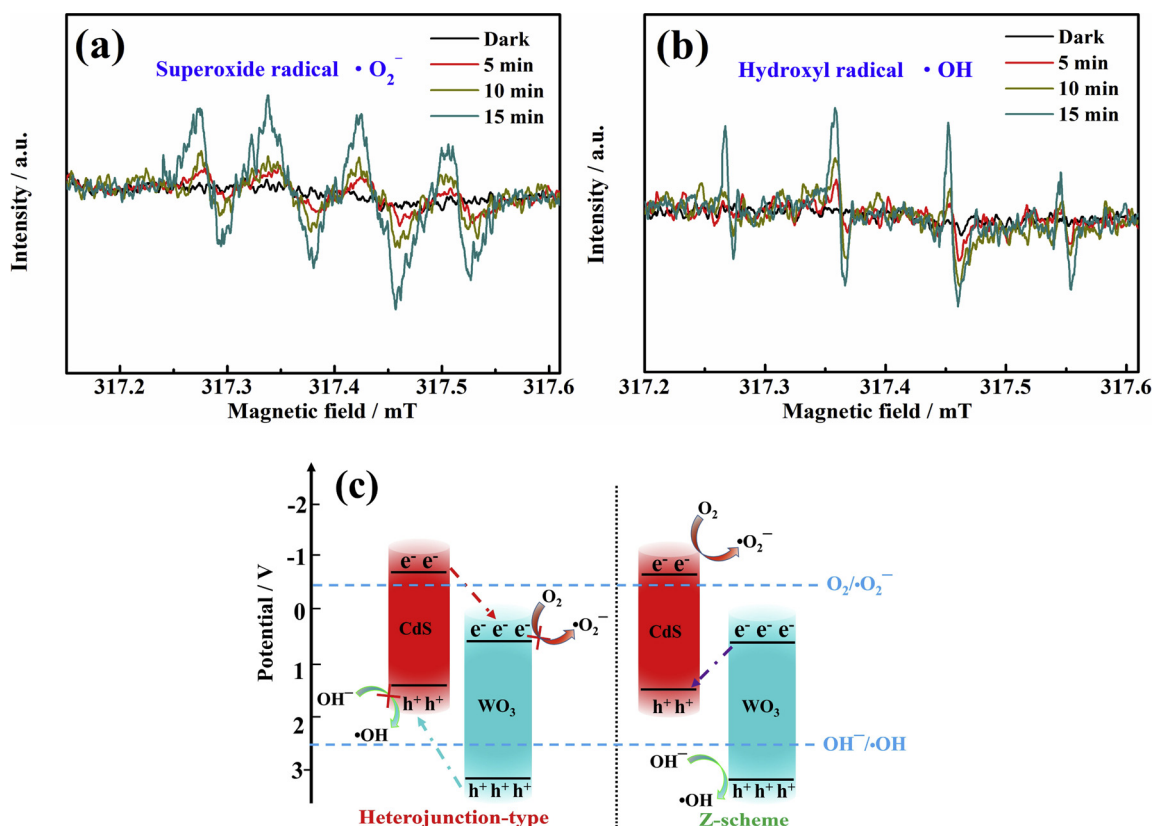


Fig. 10. DMPO- $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ (a) and DMPO- $\cdot\text{OH}$ (b) trapping ESR spectra in the presence of CW-10.83% under visible light, charge transfer pathway of the composites (c).

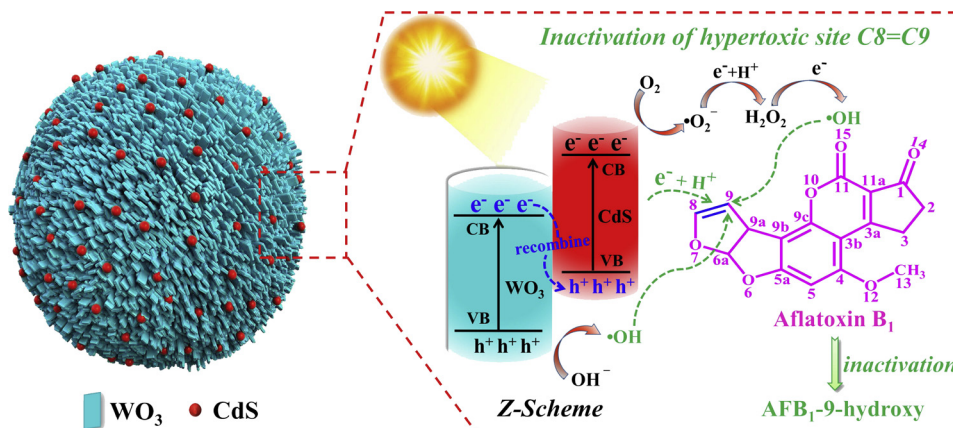
4. Conclusion

In summary, the photocatalytic inactivation mechanism of hypertoxic site in AFB₁ was verified through theoretical and experimental evidences. Clew-like WO₃ decorated with CdS nanoparticles were successfully prepared by microwave-assisted hydrothermal and precipitation method, which showed excellent activities for inactivating hypertoxic site C8=C9 under visible light irradiation resulting in a sharp decrease of toxicity. This efficient Z-schematic composite not only promoted the charge separation and prolong the life time of charges, but also utilized the well oxidation ability of WO₃ to oxidize the OH⁻ to $\cdot\text{OH}$, which were the key active radicals for photocatalytic inactivation. The reaction mechanism of $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals with C8=C9 were confirmed systematically through the structure identification of intermediates, radical trapping, ¹⁸O isotope labeling. And DFT theoretical calculations

illuminated that $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals were inclined to react with the C9 site rather than other sites. Our finding can be as a theoretical direction for design of efficient photocatalyst to mitigate highly toxic pollutant in future study.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the Natural Science Foundation of China (31871900, 31401601), National Key Project for Agro-product Quality & Safety Risk Assessment, PRC (GJFP2018001), International Science & Technology Cooperation Program of China (2016YFE0112900).



Scheme 2. Illustration of the proposed mechanism over CdS/WO₃ composites for inactivating the hypertoxic site (C8=C9) in AFB₁ under visible light irradiation.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2019.01.057>.

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